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ABSTRACT

Despite educational expansion, girls and women still face unequal educational and training opportunities. A fundamental cause is the perpetuation of assumptions, beliefs, and prejudices that ignore, belittle, and hinder the aspirations, needs, and capacities of girls and women. Since educational and vocational guidance can promote equal opportunity, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) decided to produce the "Manual on Educational and Vocational Guidance for Girls and Women." The Manual seeks to help girls and women in their efforts toward self-fulfillment through education, training, and career-building. The volume includes five chapters entitled: (1) "Inequality of Opportunity"; (2) "Role and Function of Educational and Vocational Guidance"; (3) "Organizing and Operating a Guidance Program"; (4) "Consequences of Effective Guidance Programs"; and (5) "Learning from the Experiences of Others." (LBG)

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Educational and Vocational Guidance for Girls and Women

Expert Meeting on Educational and Vocational
Guidance for Girls and Women

(Unesco, Paris, 20-24 February 1989)

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UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL,
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EXPERT MEETING ON EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL
GUIDANCE FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

(Unesco, Paris, 20-24 February 1989)

EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

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PREFACE

Despite educational progress and expansion in the last few decades, girls and women still are affected by unequal educational and training opportunities. A fundamental cause for this is the perpetuation of assumptions, beliefs and prejudices which ignore, belittle and hinder their aspirations, needs and capacities. Consequently, decision-makers at individual and societal levels, public opinion and often girls and women themselves, show insufficient interest in their education and training, as sometimes justified with arguments that it is more necessary for boys and men than for girls and women.

Even when the principle of equality of educational and training opportunity is recognized and manifest de jure in the nation's constitution and relevant legislation, this has not always adequately promoted girls' and women's equal opportunities and treatment de facto. Therefore, much remains to be done, so that the gap between the two is bridged and the true spirit of equality between men and women is appreciated, accepted and observed.

Educational and vocational guidance can be an important instrument in this endeavour when properly organized and made available to those concerned: decision-makers, employers, parents, educational personnel and female students. It is towards this end that Unesco decided to produce a Manual on Educational and Vocational Guidance for Girls and Women. With the aim of promoting greater awareness among political and educational authorities, of the necessity of specific action towards educational and vocational guidance services for girls and women. The manual will be widely disseminated in Member States. In order to help girls and women in their endeavours towards self-fulfilment through education, training and career-building, the manual would have to inspire and inform decision-makers of the action needed and suggest ways of implementing it.

Complementary to the annotated outline, which offers an overall framework for the manual, the present document suggests tentative facts and observations for the content of the manual itself. Taking into consideration the suggestions of the meeting, the document will be revised and completed to serve as the basis for the manual.

Unesco would like to express its thanks to Professor William C. Bingham and Dr Grace Martin of the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance, for having prepared the annotated outline and this document in a relatively short space of time.

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FOREWORD

[The foreword (probably not more than half a dozen or so pages) will present an overview of the entire manual, including its purposes, the manner of organizing it, and some general suggestions for using it. In addition, various sources of assistance, encouragement, and support will be acknowledged. A bit of a "pep talk" may also be included underscoring the importance of taking the subject matter seriously.]

CHAPTER 1

INEQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

The notion that educational systems should include specialized vocational guidance for girls and women, while certainly a timely topic, is not a product of the current decade. Similarly, it knows no social, cultural, or geographic boundaries. Various authors began to call attention to the need for such activities shortly after the beginning of the twentieth century (Brewer, 1942). In spite of this early recognition, though, progress has been slow. It is simply the case that, in many instances, women are denied the educational and vocational experiences which are available to men. Despite UNESCO's ongoing program and a worldwide commitment by many social and professional organizations to the promotion of equal participation for both sexes, women continue to be the victims of a combined multiplicity of forces, the end result of which is a fundamental inequality which is antithetical to the position taken by UNESCO's Director General (M'Bow, 1980) when he expressed his vision of a universal identity aimed at progress and peace. Common to all the forces behind the slow progress is the belief that men and women are inherently different in ways that justify limiting women's access to educational and vocational opportunities. If such opportunities were not limited, of course, women would be free to participate fully in the workforce and in other activities of the world's societies, as well.

From a historical perspective, it has been claimed by some that cross-cultural, anthropological studies demonstrate that females virtually never have had economic, social, and political power (see e.g., Rosaldo, 1974; Harding, 1975). The implication, of course, is that such power has not been granted to women because decision-makers carry the traditional belief that "women are unable to deal with it effectively". This argument has been used in support of continuing discrimination against women and maintaining the status quo. In an intensive review of the professional literature, however, Cox (1981) mustered evidence to support the view that the typical narrow definitions of formal power should be rejected. She also suggested that in many cultures women exercise a broad range of informal powers that are equal to, though different from, those of men. She suggested further that much of the ethnographic literature is culture-bound and serves to maintain a male view of the world, rather than to describe fully the actual intricacies of functional power in societies. Her arguments are very convincing that women can, and indeed do, demonstrate the ability to deal with power effectively on a level of proficiency which is at least equal to that of men.

Perhaps more pervasive are the mythic models of women which characterize much literature, religion, and popular culture. Women are, at once, described as the incarnation of all goodness and the basis of all evil, as idol and servant, everything and nothing (de Beauvoir, 1953). Williams (1987) has discussed these attitudes and beliefs, recognizing their philosophical origins and decrying their influence in determining the attitudes and expectations of modern-day people. She calls for an emphasis on feminist scholarship that is sensitive to issues and problems that are unique to women, focusing on the generation of empirical evidence rather than subscription to the magico-mystical preconceptions which have characterized scholarly work in the past. The point is that women, like men, are reality-based beings.

Last, but most definitely not least, is the enormously important force which results from the impact of psychological research in the area of gender differences. Numerous investigations have produced results which suggest that boys and girls are inherently different in ways that would influence vocational preparation. For example, it has been claimed that girls are more suggestible, have lower self-esteem, lack achievement motivation, are less analytical, and are less proficient in acquiring skills which involve higher-order cognitive processing. These findings have dramatic implications because their audience often includes teachers, guidance counselors, educational administrators and political decision makers. At the same time, this audience may not have access to contradictory information which questions these assumptions. In their widely-acclaimed compilation and review, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) have clearly demonstrated that these assumptions are unfounded. Even in those instances where these authors found other differences to be established or ambiguous, they found no discrepancies which would support differential vocational preparation for males and females. They did, however, note that differences, when they do exist, are often situation-specific, more evident in certain subgroups, and consistent with societal stereotypes. It could be argued that there are no psychological differences in boys and girls other than those imposed by environments. The point here, along with those of the aforementioned forces, is simply this: the primary factors which work toward inequity in vocational preparation for females are based on attitudes and beliefs. They must be dealt with as such!

In spite of the pressures which result from these strong forces, the most significant change in the worldwide labor force during the Twentieth Century has been the number of females who hold jobs outside the home (Rambo, 1982). For example, in the US the number of employed women rose from 14.7 per cent of the labor force in 1890 to 43.5 per cent in 1972. By the beginning of the 1980s, almost 60 per cent of all women in the US over age 16 were in the workforce (Young, 1979?).

[Similar data from responses to the questionnaire, or from other countries, will be inserted at this point.]

Many factors have contributed to these dramatic changes in women's participation rates in the labor force. In industrial, industrializing, and post-industrial societies alike, technological development, economic trends, shifts in the structure of workforces, and changes in family structures have all been influential. Growing awareness, on the part of the populace as well as government leaders, of the need for more equitable treatment of women in society has also played a part in bringing about notable increases in both the numbers and the proportions of women who work in other than domestic occupations. It should be noted that some of the credit for these changing conditions has to be given to social reform activities initiated and supported by volunteers working for civic-minded organizations.

At the same time, the distribution of male participation in labor forces has also changed. In some cases, it has declined, as in the US: 86.4 per cent of all men over 16 were employed in 1950; by the beginning of the 1980s this proportion had dropped to 77.5 per cent (Bednarzed and Klein, 19??). In other cases, particularly during times of rapid economic expansion, it has increased markedly. But often the rate of increase for women has been even greater, as shown by Fichlander (1962): between 1870 and 1950 the number of male workers in the US increased by barely 400 per cent, while the number of female workers increased by over 900 per cent.

[Similar data from other countries will be inserted at this point.]

The essential lesson that needs to be learned from the analysis of such labor-force data is that the increase, in both raw numbers and proportions, of women in labor forces has been a long-term trend extending over at least the last century. It is not an artifact of recent events. While the additional workpower provided by women has often been welcomed eagerly, especially at times of national emergency such as war time, for the most part, women have been broadly accepted only in low-paying, relatively low status, and not particularly satisfying jobs.

Demonstrably, the impact of these changes has been enormous. Virtually every aspect of family life has had to change (Rambo, 1982). The economic contributions of women have weakened traditional sources of male power. Societies are in a state of flurry. Although everyone is affected, girls and women who are in the process of making vocational choices are the primary casualties. They find themselves caught between obvious pressures not to seek employment and equally obvious data which indicate that more and more women hold jobs during their adult lives. On the one hand, they are reluctant to participate in what may be perceived as a continued disruption of society. On the other, they recognize the reality that they probably will work and, reasonably, wonder about vocational and career possibilities which would allow them to pursue self-fulfillment in an occupation which also offers satisfying opportunities to contribute to society. The result is what some psychological theorists would call a classic approach-avoidance conflict. It is a powerful conflict because approaching one of the alternatives increases the need to avoid the other, so there is a constant sense of lack of movement which, inevitably, becomes very frustrating. Sometimes, the sense of frustration can be intense; almost always it is immobilizing to some extent.

Women who experience such conflict may choose not to enter the workforce or they may choose "women's work," which, as already noted, typically means jobs that are routine, require only basic skills, offer little if any chance for advancement, and carry with them low wages and inferior status. The cost to the world's societies of such decisions is enormous; they are denied important population segments from which to draw talent, creativity, expertise, and the potential for growth and development. The entire society suffers when any group of citizens is deprived of equal participation.

The costs to the women themselves are even greater. They suffer from -

[The following discussion will focus on selections from the following list of topics. Though all are relevant, the intended length of the manuscript does not permit full treatment of all of them. The expert panel can be helpful in suggesting which should be included.]:

1. Where women work
2. Sex roles
3. Socialization
4. Personality
5. Occupational choice (emphasizing Super)
6. Motivation ^{to avoid} ~~to avoid~~ success
7. Mobility

8. Job orientation
9. Commitment to work
10. Life satisfaction
11. Family roles
12. Mental health
13. Performance levels on the job

[The purpose in summarizing these influences on development will be two-fold: to underscore the pervasiveness of early influences on human behavior, and to highlight the extent to which girls and women get conditioned to taking themselves out of the running for opportunities.]

CHAPTER 2

ROLE AND FUNCTION OF EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The roles which are served by educational and vocational guidance programs vary widely in different parts of the world, and often in different parts of the same country. In large measure, these variations depend on the kind of support, both financial and psychological, which the local community is able, or willing, to provide. What the community is able to provide is most directly a function of the prevailing economic conditions. What the community is willing to provide is more likely to be a function of some collective evaluation of the usefulness of the services. That kind of evaluation will be based, usually to a considerable extent, on the responsiveness of clients to what is offered. If clients participate with considerable enthusiasm and are motivated to change their own behavior in ways advocated by the guidance personnel who operate the program, then the likelihood of a favorable rating is increased. It is incumbent on designers of programs, therefore, to understand what it takes to induce the kind of client commitment which reflects motivation to change and enthusiasm to participate.

With the foregoing considerations in mind, the major purpose of this chapter, then, is to underscore some fundamental considerations which are regarded by the authors as necessary in the conceptualization and operation of a good program. They relate to the links between guidance and culture and the links among education, employability, and employment. On the basis of these two sets of linkages, suggestions will also be made for establishing a sound framework for guidance.

Links between Guidance and Culture

Many of the judgments which comprise the collective evaluation mentioned above are unavoidably colored by meanings attributed to assorted significant events in the culture. As noted by Lebra (1976; cited in Watanabe and Herr, 1983), the meaning attributed to specific behaviors in any particular culture is anchored in that culture's historical legacy and provides the fabric in which personal identity is embedded. The manner in which such underlying tendencies get translated into visible behavior is evident in the prevailing cognitive codes, that is, in the ways that people think and speak about those significant events. Because of these intricate relationships between social perceptions and the assignment of meaning, guidance services inevitably reflect much of the culture in which they are offered. Prevailing cultures tend to impinge on guidance services from two directions: from "above" by the expectations of supporters; from "below" by the expectations of clients. In order to understand how a guidance program fits into the culture which makes it available, it is necessary to take a closer look at each of these two sets of expectations, the perspective of society, and the perspective of clients.

The Perspective of Society

Invariably, the preferences, values, and beliefs which are widely held in the community are superimposed on the guidance programs which the community offers. This imposition can, of course, occur deliberately, but more likely than not, it will be unwitting. When people, perhaps especially those people

responsible for budget decisions, make a strong commitment to a service program, it is almost inevitable that they will expect the values and beliefs to which they subscribe to be reflected in what occurs in the program. As a consequence, it is equally inevitable, unless a concerted effort is made to avoid doing so, that the prevailing values and beliefs of the society will be advocated in educational and vocational guidance programs.

This tendency to reflect prevailing values can be manifest in guidance programs in a number of ways. For present purposes, a limited number of illustrations will serve to make the influence of culture clear enough. The exact dimensions to be illustrated are philosophical assumptions, the impact of language and religion, and differences in expectations regarding appropriate sex-role behavior. These are appropriate dimensions around which to build examples, not only because they occur in all cultures, but precisely because they are of fundamental importance in all cultures.

Philosophical Assumptions. In some fashion or other, all social expectations incorporate philosophical assumptions about the nature of humanity, the value of life, the efficacy of certain kinds of interventions in the lives of others, and so forth. As an example of how these assumptions can influence guidance programs, just one will be examined, the enhancement of human dignity.

In one analysis of guidance programs in a number of countries (see Bingham, 1987), it was concluded that all the guidance programs studied, in one way or another, advocated the enhancement of human dignity. The specific routes by which human dignity can be enhanced, however, can differ substantially across cultures. Historically, guidance services have their roots in the cultures of North America and Western Europe. In most of those cultures, self-direction has been seen as an important route to human dignification. As a matter of fact, in some respects in some of these cultures, self-direction has been seen as synonymous with human dignity.

Because guidance programs have become better established in North America and Western Europe than in much of the rest of the world, countries in those regions have been seen as producing the "experts." The assistance of these experts has often been sought by those who initiate or undertake to improve guidance programs elsewhere. Since the programs operated by those perceived as experts tend to be regarded as superior, there have been broad-based attempts to use them as models, to imitate their behavior of their staffs, and to borrow their guidance practices. In some cases, this kind of imitation and borrowing has worked effectively enough, but there is a constant danger of adopting something which not only will not work, but which will actually be counter-productive. This danger may be especially hard to identify when the underlying philosophical assumptions are not very clearly articulated, as is often the case with assumptions about self-direction. If program activities have been designed to facilitate self-direction, then their suitability for different cultures needs to be examined carefully. The same practices which work well in a culture which values the individual as the primary source of his or her own direction may prove quite ineffective in a culture which relies on some social unit as the primary force behind individual direction.

Language and Religion. Even though assumptions about how self-direction contributes to human dignity are widely accepted in Western culture, there are differences which seem to be influenced directly by language and religion. As evidenced in a report by Conger (1986), the situation in Canada is a good case in point. A careful reading of his descriptions of provincial guidance programs reveals a fundamental difference between predominantly French-speaking and Roman Catholic Quebec and the other provinces which are almost exclusively English-speaking and predominantly Protestant.

The philosophical tone of the Quebec model appears to be highly affective and quite intuitive. There seems to be almost an expression of faith that if each of the participants, clients and professionals alike, do their parts, they will quite naturally produce desirable outcomes. The tone of the others is logical and sequential. No assumption is made that desirable outcomes can accrue in any automatic way. On the contrary, there is an obvious concern with doing everything possible to assure certain specifiable outcomes. Although it is difficult to judge precisely how much of these differences can be attributed to language and religion, it is clear that there is some significant influence.

Sex-Role Behavior. By systematic patterns, all societies differentially reward and punish behavior in males and females. These patterns of reinforcement are especially powerful when they occur, as they invariably do, early in the lives of individuals. The rewards and the punishments are meted out so early, so consistently, so subtly, and so much outside of awareness, that by the time the resulting behavior patterns are submitted to conscious review, so to speak, they are already well established and are experienced as natural or built in rather than learned or acquired.

One of the traditional consequences of this kind of selective reinforcement is that young women grow up expecting that their work, the contribution they make to society, will be primarily within the home. In societies where early marriage is the norm, most young women probably never even entertain ideas about working outside the home. Where marriage is typically delayed until a somewhat later age, many young women will grow up thinking of employment as temporary, as a stopgap measure, until marriage occurs. In traditional modes, even a woman who never marries is likely to be relegated to some kind of homemaking function within the extended family. Well into the Twentieth Century, at least in North America, the term "maiden aunt" was in relatively common use as a descriptor for some household members.

Young men, on the other hand, are conditioned from an early age to believe that their contribution to society will be accomplished primarily through paid employment, that work outside the home will be the central organizing force throughout their lives. Terms such as "breadwinner" and "man of the house" are used to designate their responsibility for sustaining the family economically. Though some of them will never marry, they will still be expected to work, in some cases, to contribute to the support of the extended family. But, in that case, they will be known simply as uncles, apparently without any particular need for an adjective to explain or justify their presence.

The same forces which shape these expectations in young people have shaped the people of the generations before them. Thus, the adults who are the policy-makers and the budget builders are the products of the same socialization processes. The decisions they make about supporting guidance programs will undoubtedly reflect the values, expectations, and beliefs which they internalized while they were growing up. In this connection, it should be no surprise that, in some circumstances, guidance services are not extended to women at all or as appropriate. If the public officials who make the services possible believe that women are going to work only in the home, then, from their mental framework, it is not difficult to understand how they can come to subscribe to a position which holds that educational and vocational guidance services for girls and women are not very essential to the community.

The Perspective of the Client

Certainly, clients do not have the kind of power and influence that policy makers have. Nonetheless, they do have important effects on the outcomes of guidance programs. In the final analysis, it is the behavior of clients by which the effectiveness of guidance programs will be judged. Therefore, it is important for program operators and supporters to understand the impact that client behavior can have.

The essential ingredient in client impact on the program is manifest in their ability and willingness to be responsive to the services which are made available. The kind of client commitment which encompasses the enthusiasm to participate and the motivation to change mentioned at the beginning of this chapter is most likely to occur if programs are perceived by clients as sensible, feasible, and reasonable. Perceptions that permit these commitments are most likely to occur if the clients are truly ready to benefit from the experiences being offered. Thus, it is necessary to provide program elements which are explicitly designed to capitalize on the readiness of the people they are trying to reach. This kind of readiness can be understood best in terms of developmental tasks.

The essential feature of developmental tasks (Havighurst, 1953) is that they occur in sequence through the course of development and that mastery of one is necessary in order to be able to cope with the next. Thus, an individual who faces new developmental tasks without having mastered earlier ones is at a disadvantage compared to other individuals who have mastered the earlier ones. Whenever the differences in readiness to meet the school expectations associated with mastery of developmental tasks are not remedied, then the difference between those who are ready and unready to face new developmental tasks increases. By the time young people reach the end of their schooling, either by completing requirements or leaving prematurely for other reasons, individual differences in readiness to move into employment or to seek further preparation for employment can be enormous.

The distinctive contributions (Bingham, 1982) that guidance programs make are related to the mastery of developmental tasks.

[These distinctive contributions, and their relation to developmental tasks will be treated more fully in a later section.]

In order to be ready to meet the expectations which await them as they leave secondary school, young people must have substantially mastered the subject matter to which they have been exposed, but in addition, they must have come to grips with their own developmental needs. If developmental needs emerged uniformly for all pupils, and pupils were all at similar levels of readiness to cope with them, then implementation of reasonable vocational guidance objectives might be a much simpler matter. Although instructional programs do address developmental needs in general terms, classroom activities cannot provide sufficiently for the range of individual differences in readiness to engage in effective vocational planning. All pupils need individual attention in order to understand their own uniqueness, to integrate what they learn (both in school and out of school) into a useful body of self-knowledge, to translate that self-understanding into personally meaningful vocational terms, and identify and work toward goals that permit implementation of those vocational self-perceptions.

In American society, and probably in much of the world otherwise, as well, the vocational developmental tasks which emerge during what Super (1957) calls the growth stage (approximately birth through age 14) include developing an orientation to work, learning the meanings of work, and beginning to

translate personal values into work values. Attending to these tasks deliberately may appear to adults as unnecessary, perhaps because they believe that mastery of the tasks is inherent. If so, they probably believe what they do because they have internalized the ideas through the subtle reinforcement processes mentioned earlier. Those who have not internalized these same beliefs may be equally convinced that they are irrelevant.

For the first part of Super's exploration stage (ages 15 through 18 in the US), vocational developmental tasks are crystallization and specification of occupational preferences. In some cases, individuals will also attempt tentative implementation of occupational choices during this period, although that is more typically a task of the latter part of the exploration stage (ages 19 through 25). In different cultures, where the assumption of adult economic roles is not as delayed as it is in the US, movement through these developmental tasks may progress somewhat differently. Unfortunately, the research data are not currently available to permit accurate judgments as to just what the differences are.

Because the earliest vocational developmental tasks emerge during the pre-school years (cf Borow, 1984), opportunities to master them typically occur through family and neighborhood experiences before entering formal education. Thus, individuals who grow up in families (and live in neighborhoods) where patterns of work are stable and paid employment is a central and reasonably dependable experience in life are likely to enter school for the first time with a good start on mastering the developmental tasks of the growth stage. They can be said to be vocationally mature for their age. By contrast, those individuals who grow up in circumstances where work is not experienced as stable, unemployment is wide-spread, and the most visibly "successful" employed people may engage in illegal occupations are likely to be vocationally immature when they enter school for the first time.

The difference in the two sets of circumstances described in the previous paragraph tends to be associated with socio-economic status (cf. Miles, 1984) in that youngsters from middle-class backgrounds can generally be expected to experience the former and youngsters from lower- or working-class backgrounds are likely to experience the latter. In many parts of the world, suburban schools tend to be predominantly middle-class and urban schools (and in many places, rural schools as well) tend to be predominantly lower- and working-class. Since those attending urban schools and rural schools may be at a decided disadvantage when they begin school regarding their readiness to cope with vocational developmental tasks, they usually need special assistance in order to reach adequate levels of readiness to face employment or further education on leaving school. In particular, they need considerably more individual attention than their suburban school age-mates in accomplishing functional levels of the kind of self-understanding mentioned a few paragraphs earlier.

On the basis of the foregoing illustration, it is obvious that a guidance program would have to have widely diversified components in order to serve all of the different target populations which exist because of notable differences in developmental experiences. On a parallel plane, it can also be seen that a program conceived in a narrow sense may very well not attract large numbers of prospective clients to committed participation. Consequently, such a program may have difficulty in maintaining community support over any extended period of time. Furthermore, if a program were narrowly focused, in all likelihood, it would serve better to meet the needs of middle-class rather than lower-class clients. Without explicit efforts to the contrary, such an eventuality is essentially unavoidable if only because the program designers (who themselves are products of their culture) are likely to be middle-class. In effect, their program would be providing the greatest help for those who need it the least.

Social class was used in the chosen example principally because the differences which are apparent in this connection are relatively easy to recognize and to comprehend. In those early experiences related to the mastery of vocational developmental tasks, differences between the sexes can be just as dramatic, of course. However, because of the pervasiveness of early socialization, they are often less recognizable. Ordinarily, women have little difficulty comprehending them, but it is not at all unusual to encounter men who have a great deal of difficulty doing so. Or perhaps men do comprehend, but have difficulty only in accepting the reality. Unfortunately, in most cultures, the policy makers are more likely to be male than female. Thus, gaining and retaining the dependable support of those whose endorsement one would like to take for granted may be particularly troublesome.

Links among Education, Employability, and Employment

By definition, a central objective of vocational guidance is to assist clients in their search for useful employment. In a study of vocational guidance in several countries (Bingham, 1987), it was found that essentially the transition from education into initial employment was invariably viewed as a crucial event in the lives of young people. There was almost always a clear expectation that the transition from school to work would be more easily managed if the links between education and employment were clearly understood by clients. Accordingly, there was consistent evidence of fairly elaborate efforts to articulate those linkages and to design experiences intended to assure that learners would internalize them.

In view of this apparent consensus on the importance of the links between education (or training) and employment, it is surprising that very little direct attention was addressed to employability. As a conceptual link between education and work, the concept of employability can be viewed as serving to assist learners to become employable and, therefore, attractive to employers. It is, after all, those workers who are adequately employable who retain jobs and, in turn, meet with success because they perform in ways that employers regard as satisfactory enough to reward. And it is reasonable to expect that vocational counselors help their clients to become employable. In order to meet that expectation, it makes sense to attend to employability.

In general, the concept of employability has received little systematic scholarly attention. In an important paper in this connection, Herr (1984) spelled out some of the linkages among training, employability, and employment. Building on Dunn's (1974) definition of employability, "the capacity of the individual to function in a particular work situation or occupation," he placed particular emphasis on the distinction between general and specific employability. General employability includes such skill categories as affective work competencies (attitudes, values, and habits), work context skills (peer and supervisory relations, regularity of attendance, willingness to follow rules, understanding organizational life, efficiency, and pride in work), and self-management (decision making, reality testing, using resources for exploratory purposes, knowledge of self and occupational opportunities, and relating academic subject matter to job content). Specific employability encompasses skills that are specific to an occupation or an employment setting. All occupations and jobs make a variety of demands on general employability; most require some specific employability skills.

The usefulness of the differentiation between general and specific employability should not be underestimated. In the first place, it has become axiomatic (at least in North America and Western Europe) that people seldom lose their jobs because of inadequate technical occupational skills. Depending on whose data are invoked, somewhere between 70 and 95 per cent of the workers who get dismissed from or experience adjustment difficulties at

work do so because of interpersonal problems, inept communication skills, poor work habits or attitudes, inability to function as a team member, and such. They lose their jobs not because they are deficient in specific employability skills, the technical competence to perform assigned job tasks, but because of deficiencies in general employability skills. Herr reported data indicating that young people who continue to experience employment problems after a predictable period of trial and experimentation do not outgrow the problems. Joblessness in youth is predictive of work adjustment problems later in life, in part because valuable experience is lost during periods of unemployment, and in part because the jobless experience affects attitudes toward work. When periods of unemployment are extended, life for the victims (Miller and Oetting, 1977) gets complicated by family responsibilities, health and financial problems, and social and interpersonal difficulties. Extended unemployment also tends to affect the worker's family negatively (Perfetti and Bingham, 1983), especially in terms of affective competencies. The data are persuasive that the usual consequences of deficient general employability skills, and especially affective competencies, stay with people throughout their lives and often are transmitted to other family members.

The second reason that the distinction between general and specific employability is important is that all of the attendant skills are learned. As such, of course, they can also be taught. But they are not likely to be taught in the face of assumptions that they do not need to be taught. And they are more likely to be learned effectively (or the negative counterparts of them unlearned) if they are deliberately and carefully taught. In particular, it appears that affective work competencies such as work values, habits, and attitudes, are crucial to job survival because they are the mediators that spur people to learn new job skills. In order to increase clients' potential to benefit from training as well as from educational and vocational guidance programs, it makes sense to give thorough attention to general employability skills, which so often go unattended to.

The third reason for attending to the distinction between the general and specific components is that they frequently receive very different kinds of attention from professionals. In the study already cited, it was clear that the education-to-employment links were more easily detectable with respect to specific than to general employability. Regarding specific skills, a distinct relationship was almost always evident in the case studies. On the other hand, attention to general employability was typically vague or stated only in global terms.

A Framework for Intervention

For people who are dedicated to helping others to cope with social ills, intervening in the life of another human being is a heavy responsibility. If conducted poorly, such interventions may lead to deterioration rather than improvement. Therefore, it is appropriate to think carefully about what will and will not be effective, and to construct the best possible combination of ideas, personnel, and strategies. This chapter is intended to address those issues.

Building on the broad conceptualizations offered in the preceding sections, the remainder of this chapter will sketch out what is viewed as a suitable set of general principles within which effective educational and vocational guidance programs can be developed for girls and women. To begin with, a few basic theoretical constructs will be introduced, summarized, and applied to the behavior of girls and women. Following that, the needs for intervention in the lives of girls and women will be outlined, with special emphasis on the reasons why different interventions are seen as necessary at various points in the life span. Next, some basic strategies will be analyzed and recommended. The final section, elements of a sound guidance program, includes a brief description of each of the components which ought to be included in a comprehensive guidance program.

Theoretical Constructs

[Developmental tasks (mentioned earlier) will be elaborated upon. Other theoretical ideas to be discussed include exploratory behavior, Super's (1957; 1963; 1980; 1984) life stages formulation, sources of self-esteem and personal satisfaction, and self-concept development generally.]

Need for Intervention

[In this section, the theoretical notions of the previous section will be applied directly to the developmental needs of girls and women as they progress through the life span. An effort will be made to persuade readers that theory relevant at one developmental level may well be unproductive at another. Some myths which prevail about human behavior will be analyzed and, hopefully, dispelled.]

Basic Strategies

[Strategies will be advocated to address three fundamental goals (for clients) which constitute what is seen by the authors as the distinctive contribution (Bingham, 1982) that educational and vocational guidance can make to a person's effectiveness: understanding one's own individual uniqueness, maximizing self-understanding, and selecting and implementing personal goals.]

Elements of a Sound Guidance Program

[Elaborations will be made on a formulation proposed by Watts (1981) which treats elements such as information, assessment, advising, career education, counseling, and enabling. Some attention will also be given to personnel and facilities.]

CHAPTER 3

ORGANIZING AND OPERATING A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

In order to implement the guidance practices advocated in the previous chapter, it is necessary to get a program organized and into operation. The present chapter reviews some of the issues which need to be addressed in that connection: gaining support for the program; establishing and implementing priorities in order to make maximal use of resources; assessing effectiveness in order to demonstrate the program's value to various constituencies.

Gaining Support

A frequently encountered obstacle to getting a guidance program started in a timely fashion is gaining the right kind of support from the public. There is no question that legislative action, endorsement by recognized experts, encouragement by national and international professional associations, and backing by other authorities can all be very helpful in bringing a proposed program into fruitful operation. The productive work that ultimately leads to enthusiastic support can occur only at the local level. In the long run, the soundest basis for support is effective delivery of service to needy target populations. By contrast, the surest erosion of support is likely to come about through failure to meet the needs of some influential group in the community. In short, the best basis for support is effective performance.

Since the guidance functions defined in the previous chapter constitute the cornerstone of effectiveness in a guidance program, they will receive the bulk of the attention in this section, but as a general back drop for that discussion, it is suitable first to make some basic observations about the organizational base of guidance programs at large.

Organizational Base

Throughout the history of the guidance movement around the world, the most common organizational base for guidance activities has been the public schools. Some of the major reasons for this may be self-evident, but they probably bear repeating none the less:

1. One of the principal reasons, of course, is convenience. The schools offer a structure which makes prospective users of guidance services readily available in the same place on a regular basis. In effect, the schools make an important target population much easier to reach than would otherwise be the case.
2. Another reason derives from the generally recognized folk wisdom noted in the previous chapter - if people are to benefit from the kind of help that guidance can offer, then it is a good idea to reach them early in their lives. Furthermore, schools also offer a more direct link to families than other social structures.
3. A third reason is associated with the usual underlying economic conditions which give rise to the perception that guidance is needed in the first place. Rapid changes in conditions of employment almost always stimulate the idea that young people must shape and frame their aspirations to contribute to society through work in quite a different manner than their predecessors. To accomplish this, it is reasoned, they need professional help. Inevitably, schools are seen as playing a central role in this aspect of vocational preparation.

4. Under the press to do something quickly, it is understandable that schools should be seen as offering a short cut. With a minimum of additional training, it is expected that teachers can provide a "quick fix" until a new service structure can be erected. Though teachers are not often seen as the ultimate solution, slow progress can make it seem that they are being used as if it were.

For the reasons noted, when new guidance programs have been introduced, the first activities have ordinarily been conducted in the schools, specifically in classrooms. Teachers, who are seen as already possessing many of the necessary skills, and as concerned about the welfare of their students, are recruited to attend to the newly emerging goals. Sometimes, there has been supplemental compensation, or release from other obligations, for assuming these additional responsibilities, but that is not always the case. More often than not, the additional work has been assumed voluntarily by dedicated people.

In their early development, almost all of the established guidance programs in industrialized countries, which now have full-time specialized staff who work only at the management and operation of guidance services, went through this phase. Although there is no reason to believe that it is an indispensable way to proceed, responses to the questionnaire used in this study, and other sources, as well, suggest that beginning in the classroom continues to be a popular course of action.

For example, in the Philippines, where guidance is required at all educational levels, teachers are expected to be involved throughout the entire process. In Malaysia (Watts, 1978), a guidance teacher was required in every primary and secondary school as long as 20 years ago. Soon after gaining independence, a number of African nations created guidance programs. As with other countries, substantial responsibility for these programs was assigned to teachers, as illustrated in Côte d'Ivoire (Perrier, 1986) and Botswana (Khama & Kann, 1988). When Greece decided to accelerate its efforts to strengthen its guidance offerings, one of the first emphases was on the preparation of careers education teachers (Tzavella, 1986). In Fiji (King, 1985), guidance duties, such as overseeing students' applications to tertiary education, are explicitly assigned to careers teachers, who are also required to administer the careers service. To "integrate guidance into the curriculum" is a specified goal in Indonesia (Atikah, 1985). Bangladesh currently offers only informal guidance activities in schools, but a regular course in guidance is included in teacher preparation. It would appear that the expectation is for teachers, in due course, to play a significant role in delivering guidance services to clients.

The fact that it has occurred so frequently that new guidance programs go through the same developmental process as established ones should not be interpreted to mean that it is inevitable that every step experienced by those which have been successful must be relived. Going through some of the process is probably necessary, but it makes sense to believe that much of it can be recapitulated in a telescoped form, that what took five decades to blossom in the most mature programs can be realized today in substantially less time. In this respect, Botswana (Khama & Kann, 1988) is a case in point. Some form of guidance service was actually introduced three years before independence was attained in 1966. Today, it appears that a powerful form of recognition is about to be instituted through the creation of a guidance and counseling unit within the Ministry of Education. In fairness to those who aspire to emulate Botswana's experience, however, it should be noted that the rapid development of guidance there was probably facilitated by a combination of severe need and an unusually prosperous economy: regarding the need, almost 50 per cent of the population is less than 15 years old; regarding economic development, the per capita gross national product has increased almost four-fold since 1966. In the absence of such a solid performance by the economy and such a pressing need for service, progress can be expected to be markedly slower.

No doubt the leadership of the guidance movement in Botswana had learned the lesson that is implicit in the customary development of guidance. Since teachers are on the firing line, so to speak, it is important to gain their support early in the process. Their interest needs to be cultivated, and they need to find satisfaction in the additional work they are asked to do. While monetary reimbursement is certainly appropriate and likely to be appreciated, in itself, it is probably not a sufficient reward. What is probably more important than the money is treated in the next section.

Guidance Functions

As mentioned earlier, guidance functions are the key components of a guidance program. They are its most visible aspects. They are the means through which clients, for good or ill, experience the program. These guidance functions are represented most directly by what the professional staff actually do, how they perform from day to day. In all likelihood, it is awareness of guidance functions which forms the essential basis for most public impressions of guidance. They are the ingredients of guidance that supporters tend to take for granted; they provide much of both the accurate and erroneous "evidence" most frequently cited by critics of guidance. In all, it is through these functions that guidance programs tend to be evaluated. It is, therefore, through excellence in the execution of them that support can be earned.

Some brief comment on each of the guidance functions is in order. There is no intention to be exhaustive, but simply to highlight some illustrations of performance which is credible, relevant, and meets an obvious need.

Information. The critical thing about the information function is that appropriate information be made available to clients at a time when it is needed and in a form which is usable. Côte d'Ivoire (Perrier, 1986) showed imagination in disseminating occupational information through television. Jamaica, as a number of other countries, recognized the worth of television for this purpose, but also envisioned the use of radio. Audio and visual devices are especially useful in areas where literacy rates are relatively low, to be sure, but they need not be viewed as a last resort in confronting illiteracy. Especially television is a powerful messenger even for those who read.

Sri Lanka (Kumarapperuma, 1985) makes provision for teachers who work in guidance to work in other occupations. Such experience provides these teachers with a form of occupational information which cannot be obtained in any other way. It needs to be acknowledged, however, especially in conditions of rapid economic change, that such information can become dated quickly. Thus, making work experience a job requirement for guidance workers cannot serve its real purpose if it is a once-in-a-lifetime occurrence. As so many other things in our technological world, it must be brought up to date from time to time.

Assessment. Keeping clients informed about their own potential and performance is just as important as providing information. Countries with well established guidance systems usually have rather elaborate formal testing programs to serve this purpose. In most countries where guidance programs are fairly new, much of the assessment of potential is done by informal means, but some are moving toward formalizing various aspects of it. Nigeria, for example, uses achievement tests from the junior secondary grades onward, in part, to help students monitor their own progress. Nepal (Neelam, 1985) uses tests to certify applicants' mastery of certain occupationally relevant skills and to establish national standards for those occupations.

Developing a nation's assessment program to the point of productivity is a time-consuming and costly process. It requires a great deal of psychometric competence, as well. For these reasons, there is an inevitable temptation to search for bargains by borrowing from or imitating the practices of others. As both Canada (Conger, 1986) and India (Mehta, 1980) have learned, however, in the long run, the only relevant assessment devices are those developed locally.

Advising. In every country studied, there is a clear expectation that advice will play a part in guidance programs. In some cases, the role of the family or the clergy is acknowledged; in others, it is anticipated that something less informal will occur on a regular basis. Giving advice is clearly seen as a respectable activity which belongs in a guidance program, and early in the history of guidance in the United States (see Bingham, 1988) some guidance workers were actually designated as advisors. Though in considerably less common usage than it once was, that same term still appears today.

In many countries, it is clear, but also very understandable, that the distinction between advising and counseling as defined in the previous chapter is not employed. In many of those cases, it also appears that the people who perform guidance functions generally, have not had the specialized training that is required to perform counseling as it was defined. In the guidance system in Indonesia (Akitah, 1985), the terms "mentor" and "counselor" are both used. Since they appear in the same table of organization, presumably each has a different function. It seems likely that mentors give advice, although it is possible that they specialize in monitoring academic learning. In other countries, no doubt, many of the practitioners who are designated as "teacher-counselors" and the like, almost certainly engage in an activity which is more similar to advising than it is to counseling.

A friendly word of advice to guidance program operators may be appropriate at this juncture. Whatever guidance practice is employed, it is desirable to describe it accurately and label it accordingly. Using a designation which is inaccurate, especially when the inaccurate term is perceived as higher status, is likely to lead to one of two consequences: 1) in the long run, the public will feel deceived by the misnomer, or 2) the need for special qualifications will be misunderstood to the point of permitting incompetent people to fill the role. Either way, both the clients and the profession get shortchanged.

Careers Education. As in the earlier study (Bingham, 1987), most of the respondents to the questionnaire for this study indicated progress in the provision of vocational and technical education. From the descriptions, it would appear that this education focuses largely, if not exclusively, on specific rather than general employability skills. It is usual to begin with the specific skills because their relationship to employment is so much more evident, especially to the untutored eye. Classroom attention to the general employability skills tends to become evident only after the guidance system has been in place for some time, as in Greece (Tzavella, 1986), or when an atypical financial commitment has been made, as in Colombia (Laverde, 1985).

In one of the responses to the present questionnaire, an educational objective appears which, though not technically a general employability skill, certainly addresses the same notion. In Nigeria (Faculty of Education, 1988), young women are specifically encouraged to avoid early marriage. This belongs in the realm of general employability because of the extent to which early marriage, and particularly early child bearing, limits the career opportunities of young women. When all of the demographic projections forecast that most women will be employed outside the home for a substantial portion of their lives, they should be encouraged to obtain appropriate

occupational training, develop a set of dependable saleable skills, and engage in some meaningful work experience before they undertake family responsibilities. With this kind of background, their transition back to employment, when they are ready, will be much easier to manage than it would be without these assets.

When formal education does not provide for teaching general employability skills, a special challenge is created for guidance personnel, a challenge which offers two different opportunities. On the one hand, the guidance staff may choose to provide some of the instruction within their own program. In fact, this is not an unusual practice, even in programs with rather limited resources. Training in interpersonal skills and decision making, for example is provided for unemployed young adults in both Greece (Tzavella, 1986) and the Republic of Ireland (Chamberlain, 1986). On the other hand, the staff may choose to try to influence the content of offerings already available to teachers. In Sri Lanka (Kumarapperuma, 1985), for example, workshops and seminars are in use for the purpose of training teachers who perform guidance functions. It may be a relatively simple matter to petition the agency which is responsible for that training to include some sessions which are designed to promote classroom instruction in decision making, developing dependable work habits, responding positively to supervision, working as a team member, and other affective, work-context, and self-management skills.

Counseling. In various contexts, the term counseling has so many different applications and definitions that it is almost certainly confusing to lay people. Under the circumstances, it is certainly forgivable if non-specialists misuse the term. The same forgiveness, however, should not be expected by trained experts. The potential for confusion makes it necessary for experts to be particularly careful of their use of the term. When the term is used only to designate a special relationship which requires high qualifications as well as specialized professional training, then the confusion will be reduced and the specialists are more likely to receive the dignity and respect to which they are entitled.

Enabling. Among the reports of enabling activities, that is activities which facilitate transition into work or otherwise foster direct implementation of plans, a couple stand out as especially relevant to local circumstances. Sri Lanka encourages young women to seek self-employment and provides some instruction on how to proceed. Their efforts are supported by grants which, as of 1985, had been awarded to 8,000 recipients to help them get started in the enterprise of their choice. The Philippines, which has a history of having workers leave the country to find employment, has built instruction to their guidance program to help some workers prepare for this eventuality.

As is a rather common practice in developed countries, Nigeria (Guidance and Counseling Unit, 1988) provides a "career day" as an enabling activity. Two major purposes usually underly this activity: to provide students with current information about educational and occupational opportunities; and to bring students into contact with prospective employers. Ordinarily, it is a single-day event conducted on school property, but it does not have to be. It may extend for several days, or even a week, and when additional space is required, can be conducted off campus. Besides the obvious advantages for both students and employers, there is a less visible one for guidance program operators. Employers are often willing to provide much of the funding because it is less expensive for them to reach prospective employers this way than it would be to make contact with the same numbers individually.

In the Philippines, the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sports (1987) has adapted a practice which is not unusual in more highly developed nations. It operates somewhat as a club centered in schools and is called the Future Agricultural Homemakers of the Philippines. Some chapters actually engage in fund-raising projects which employ the occupational skills which they try to promote: catering, food production, lunchroom management, among others. All chapters explicitly aim to develop leadership, social abilities, and vocational efficiency. Of particular interest is the fact that they actively help girls to learn how to manage the dual career problems of being homemaker and worker at the same time.

Establishing and Implementing Priorities

It is axiomatic that making efficient use of available resources is never a simple matter. For one thing, there is always too much work to be done, and for another, it always seems that there are not enough resources (or human energy, for that matter) to get the job done. In keeping with this axiom, almost every respondent to the questionnaire, in one way or another, remarked about the inadequacy of available resources. Some, almost in desperation, simply wished they had more of everything; others explicitly catalogued certain areas of need, such as improved facilities, additional instructional materials, more trained personnel, expanded support staff, or whatever. Even those who, by comparison with other respondents, are reasonably well endowed, were able to identify limitations which, if corrected, would enhance their performance. In view of this essentially universal perception that more resources are needed, it makes sense to make some observations about using what is available as wisely as possible. These observations are presented under the rubrics of material resources, staff needs, and personal stamina.

Material Resources

It should be expected, especially in relatively new programs, that material resources will continue to be more limited than staff would like. Even after funds have been approved, there are usually delays in actually making the money available because of administrative and legislative routines which must be followed. Unfortunately, any or all of these processes may also be complicated further by what appear to be unnecessary bureaucratic obstacles. In addition, construction or renovation of physical facilities seem never to be completed on schedule. There is always a lag between the conceptualization of program ideas and the generation of related materials needed for instruction, or even those needed for distribution for informational or some other purpose. It does take time to set up the mechanical operations which assure that required supplies will flow smoothly through the system. The essential lesson to be learned from these universal events is that they are not to be taken as personal affronts. Even though it is frustrating to have to deal with them, getting annoyed or upset simply dissipates the energy which might be put to more constructive use, such as planning strategies which will help to overcome rather than submit to the nuisances.

[Some suggestions will be made as to how to proceed in deciding how to manage and implement priorities.]

Staff Needs

[In this section, attention will be given not only to setting priorities about using staff resources, but some suggestions will also be made as to locating, selecting, and training suitable staff members.]

[A major emphasis throughout this discussion will affirm the authors' conviction that it is essential, under all operating circumstances, to build into the the routine work schedule some time for in-service education, irrespective of the general level of education of professional staff. Why this practice is deemed important, and how to go about accomplishing it will be elaborated in some detail.]

Personal Stamina

[An effort will be made to find a more descriptive title for this section. The intention is to focus on methods of avoiding what has been called "burn-out" in recent years, especially to avoid it by eschewing obsessive attention to events over which one has no control. The purpose is to try to direct the use of personal energy to the most constructive expenditure possible, and to encourage avoidance of the "traps" that professional workers often find themselves falling into.]

[The structure of this section will parallel that of the previous one.]

Assessing Effectiveness

[This section will address four purposes:

1. to dispel the myth that profesional guidance workers, no matter what the immediate circumstances, are so busy attending to the survival and developmental needs of clients that they cannot find time to bother evaluating the effectiveness of what they do;
2. to recommend strategies and procedures for generating data which can be used, and indeed have been used by others, not only to evaluate their own performance, but which can be communicated convincingly to supporters and critics alike;
3. to propose ways in which the evidence emerging from self-evaluation can be used in continuing staff development activities;
4. to suggest how to use results of evaluations to direct efforts to keep up to date on matters that affect program operations, including a built-in provision for continuing evaluation of performance.]

[Just where to build it in is uncertain at this writing, but the authors regard it as important to make it clear somewhere in this chapter that there is no intention, and in fact it is not possible, to provide a "cookbook". To continue the analogy, the point is that authorities on educational and vocational guidance can help to identify what are believed to be appropriate ingredients for sound guidance programs, but in the final analysis, only local program operators can combine those ingredients into recipes which work in the local context. To expect otherwise is nothing short of self-delusion. Perhaps the panel of experts, at the meeting in February, can help to sort this out, can help us decide whether it is more suitable at the beginning or the end of the chapter.]

CHAPTER 4

CONSEQUENCES OF EFFECTIVE GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

The point has been made that the cultural, political, and social differences existing in the world preclude the question of devising universal models of educational and vocational guidance (Borcelle, 1985). Some of the justifications for that position will be treated in some detail in the succeeding chapter. For purposes of the current chapter, it should be noted that the obvious diversity among the conditions under which guidance is offered does not rule out the possibility that programs can produce common positive consequences for clients, local communities, the broader society, and that these benefits reflect favorably on the guidance profession as a whole and lend credibility to its efforts. Indeed, that is the basic philosophy underlying both the Statutes of the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance and the Preamble to the Policy Statement adopted by the General Assembly of the same organization at its meeting in Annecy, France, in September, 1987.

In the paragraphs which follow, the benefits which accrue to each of the groups named above will be outlined in turn,

[including, as fully as possible, examples from responses to the questionnaire].

Clients

Girls and women who participate successfully in guidance programs will be the most direct beneficiaries of whatever advantages accrue at primary and secondary levels. There is no question (Unesco, 1976) that at primary educational levels females are expected to accept employment at lower levels than men, to have obligations which prevent them from giving paid work a top priority in their lives unless it is absolutely required by uncertain or adverse economic circumstances, and to focus less than men do on educational opportunities which relate to career choices. Well designed educational and vocational guidance can help to eliminate these inequities.

At the secondary level, benefits to female clients may be less obvious, but they can be even more dramatic. Women may be given the choice of fulfilling or not fulfilling cultural expectations (Lott, 1987). In an extensive review of the literature, Lenney (1977) found that women underestimate their abilities, set less demanding goals than men do, tend to ignore objective measures of their abilities in favor of subjective preconceptions, and manifest low self-confidence when compared to men who perform the same tasks. As with the sex differences noted in the previous chapter, these too are culturally rather than genetically determined.

Girls and women can benefit from the counseling component of educational and vocational guidance programs by learning to make accurate attributions for their own performance - both their successes and their failures (Sohn, 1982). As noted by Stake (1983) they can learn to allocate rewards and compensations on the basis of the quality of their contributions and not on gender. In effect, they can learn to judge themselves on the behavioral facts of their actions rather than on the biological fact of their sex. They can develop self-esteem and confidence (Kimball and Gray, 1982) and be less susceptible to influence by others (Eagly and Carli, 1981); they can find ways to feeling independent through self-approval rather than submitting to the dependency of social approval (Rampel and Bingham, 1975). They can abandon the false and misleading dichotomies represented in the use of masculine and feminine labels (Walter, 1981).

Any female client who accomplished all of the forms of growth mentioned in the preceding paragraphs would, of course, prove to be an extraordinarily well balanced individual. For most women, even a small degree of progress in only a few of the areas touched on would be a rewarding improvement. In reality, in the hands of skillful professionals with adequate resources, earnest clients can expect to progress to a point somewhere between the two extremes just cited.

Local Communities

Local communities can also reap benefits from well-managed educational and vocational guidance services. As pointed out by Quisumbing and Lazcerees (1985), not only individuals, but regions suffer from the "dragon of discrimination" when women devalue themselves. The dynamics of modern life are such that many (in some circumstances most) women must work outside the home. When these events are counter-attitudinal to the mores of the community, women and their families suffer alienation and undue stress, which is unfortunate because the reasons for it are all anchored in unavoidable reality.

If attitudes can be changed to make women feel conscious as agents and beneficiaries of development, then steps should be taken to adjust lifestyles to meet the demands of contemporary life without sacrificing the support of the community. One self-evident example of this kind of benefit arises when parents (of both sexes) do not have to neglect the care of their children in order to be productively employed. In this connection, legislation can guarantee maternity leave for mothers, and fathers can enjoy similar benefits (Begarra, 1986); day-care facilities, play groups, and kindergarten can be encouraged. Forward-looking and concerned employers can make concerted efforts to arrange work schedules so they do not disrupt family life. All in all, with assistance of these types, family units will be strengthened. If available sociological data and opinion are in the least sense accurate, then the benefits to the community should be reflected in statistics about better school attendance, lower crime rates among young people, higher productivity by workers, and more dependable tax-generated income for governments. Over the longer term, these same consequences multiply into better participation in education, employment, and citizenship activities.

While the previous illustration focuses on two-parent families, by logical extension it can be seen that the benefits are at least as great for single-parent households. Young people who customarily become a burden to the community in a variety of ways stand a chance to become productive contributors.

The Broader Society

As more women participate equally with men in local-level enterprises, increasing numbers of them will be seen as competent. Therefore, more of them will find their way into leadership positions, both through appointment and election. As positive local benefits accumulate, they will tend to force changes in policy. The combination of changing policies and participation of women in decision making could produce two positive effects. First, it will alter the priorities of expenditures away from the prevailing male-oriented bias. Second, it will discourage the sex-role stereotyping that is a consequence of much modern-day education (MacDonald, 1987).

First, at the local level, but over time, on a broader basis, employers will gradually change their policies and practices. Training will become more equally available to men and women; apprenticeship systems will be more open to women, and females will get fairer consideration for promotion. As these outcomes emerge, the benefits realized at the local level will be extended more widely and their continuance more nearly assured:

In many parts of the world today, according to Holter (1978), a uniquely modern phenomenon exists, a serious discrepancy between ideology and reality. A number of anomalies directly related to the educational and vocational guidance of girls and women illustrate the cogency of this observation: although sex discrimination is not sanctioned in legal codes, it is a painful fact of life for many people; while legal codes often require equal pay for equal work, statistics often reveal enormous differences in the incomes of men and women in identical jobs; more likely, women are deprived of opportunities to do equal work. Women choose, or are forced to choose, "women's work". While the line of demarcation between what is male and what is female work may vary with time and place, it is invariably the case that women's jobs are valued less (Unesco Courier, 1975). Furthermore, for reasons often attributed solely to biological differences, women are encouraged to work fewer hours than men.

The examples given above may demonstrate that legislation is necessary, but it is not sufficient. Consistency between ideology and reality can be achieved only when women themselves have received encouragement and actually seek their equal places in societies.

The Guidance Profession

As the benefits outlined in the previous paragraphs become evident in both the local community and the broader society, guidance programs in general are likely to be viewed with more credibility than formerly. Public credibility, of course, is a cornerstone of continuing public support. Thus, professional guidance workers at large will probably be able to plan longer range projects and develop greater levels of confidence in their own work. Such a sequence of events can energize an upward spiral of program improvement and expansion of services to needy people. Although seen by some critics as nothing more than a dream, this long-range effect is an ideal toward which it is necessary to aspire. It is a dream that makes some of the hardships along the way a little more endurable than they would otherwise be.

On quite a different level, there will also be an important impact within the guidance profession. Counselors will ultimately benefit from concentrated efforts to enhance the exposure of girls and women to the stimulation and the prospective satisfaction of non-traditional occupational opportunities. Those counselors have been criticized for their lack of sensitivity and minimal knowledge of both women's career development (Hawley, 1976) and unawareness of the obstacles that women face in the marketplace (Bingham and House, 1973a; 1973b) and which, at least to some extent, may be perpetuated by counselor educators (Bingham and House, 1975). It is not unreasonable to hope that by participating in training programs and service activities aimed at increasing opportunities for girls and women, counselors will develop a heightened awareness of the options available to women, while at the same time abandoning some sex-role stereotypes and traditional notions which no longer may be appropriate. By such means, even the most "old-fashioned" of counselors may come to contribute significantly to the advancement of these issues of equality.

CHAPTER 5

LEARNING FROM THE EXPERIENCES OF OTHERS

[This chapter will include descriptions of how others have organized and operated educational and vocational guidance programs for girls and women. The content will be drawn from several sources: the guidance literature, the practical experiences of the authors, reports of Unesco-sponsored activities of previous years; and the responses to the questionnaire employed for this study.]

[The materials in the chapter will be organized around two dimensions. The first is the age or developmental stage of prospective clients, including (but not necessarily limited to) the primary school years, early and middle adolescence, late adolescence and early adulthood, mid-life, and maturing gracefully. For each stage, activities will be suggested which are viewed as developmentally appropriate.]

[The second dimension regards the availability of resources. Within each developmental stage, activities and program components will be suggested which require no more than a minimum of resources, those for which a moderate level of resources seems suitable, and those illustrating what can actually be accomplished when resources are ample. The hope is that all users of the manual will find something which they can adopt or from which they can interpolate to make effective use of the resources at hand.]

[An effort will also be made to include suggestions that will facilitate the adaptation of ideas to meet specific program requirements. The importance of trying new ideas will be argued, and experimentation with unfamiliar notions will be encouraged.]

CHAPTER 6

EPILOGUE

[It is expected that a more descriptive title will emerge for this chapter, which will be written only after the rest of the manual is essentially completed.]

[The content will include a summary of some major points, re-emphasis of critical points which bear repeating, and expressions of confidence that earnest, informed, and diligent guidance workers can perform well when they have the right kinds of support.]